



Timing Tasks Synchronize Cerebellar and Frontal Ramping Activity and Theta Oscillations: Implications for Cerebellar Stimulation in Diseases of Impaired Cognition

Krystal L. Parker*

Department of Neurology, Carver College of Medicine, University of Iowa, Iowa City, IA, USA

OPEN ACCESS

Edited by:

Tracy L. Greer,
University of Texas Southwestern
Medical Center, USA

Reviewed by:

Claudia Tesche,
University of New Mexico, USA
Zeran Li,
Washington University, USA

*Correspondence:

Krystal L. Parker
krystallynn.parker@gmail.com

Specialty section:

This article was submitted to
Systems Biology,
a section of the journal
Frontiers in Psychiatry

Received: 20 September 2015

Accepted: 30 December 2015

Published: 18 January 2016

Citation:

Parker KL (2016) Timing Tasks Synchronize Cerebellar and Frontal Ramping Activity and Theta Oscillations: Implications for Cerebellar Stimulation in Diseases of Impaired Cognition. *Front. Psychiatry* 6:190. doi: 10.3389/fpsy.2015.00190

Timing is a fundamental and highly conserved mammalian capability, yet the underlying neural mechanisms are widely debated. Ramping activity of single neurons that gradually increase or decrease activity to encode the passage of time has been speculated to predict a behaviorally relevant temporal event. Cue-evoked low-frequency activity has also been implicated in temporal processing. Ramping activity and low-frequency oscillations occur throughout the brain and could indicate a network-based approach to timing. Temporal processing requires cognitive mechanisms of working memory, attention, and reasoning, which are dysfunctional in neuropsychiatric disease. Therefore, timing tasks could be used to probe cognition in animals with disease phenotypes. The medial frontal cortex and cerebellum are involved in cognition. Cerebellar stimulation has been shown to influence medial frontal activity and improve cognition in schizophrenia. However, the mechanism underlying the efficacy of cerebellar stimulation is unknown. Here, we discuss how timing tasks can be used to probe cerebellar interactions with the frontal cortex and the therapeutic potential of cerebellar stimulation. The goal of this theory and hypothesis manuscript is threefold. First, we will summarize evidence indicating that in addition to motor learning, timing tasks involve cognitive processes that are present within both the cerebellum and medial frontal cortex. Second, we propose methodologies to investigate the connections between these areas in patients with Parkinson's disease, autism, and schizophrenia. Lastly, we hypothesize that cerebellar transcranial stimulation may rescue medial frontal ramping activity, theta oscillations, and timing abnormalities, thereby restoring executive function in diseases of impaired cognition. This hypothesis could inspire the use of timing tasks as biomarkers for neuronal and cognitive abnormalities in neuropsychiatric disease and promote the therapeutic potential of the cerebellum in diseases of impaired cognition.

Keywords: eyeblink conditioning, interval timing, ramping activity, theta oscillations, cerebellum, prefrontal cortex

INTRODUCTION

Timing is highly conserved for all mammals, and although it is paramount to survival, the precise neural mechanisms underlying the perception of time are unknown. Depending on the duration of time and type of behavioral task, the frontal cortex, striatum, hippocampus, and the cerebellum have been implicated in timing (1, 2). Neuropsychiatric illnesses such as Parkinson's disease (PD), autism, and schizophrenia involve cognitive impairment (3, 4). Mammals depend on time for working memory, attention, reasoning, communication, decision-making, and movement. As a valid proxy for cognition, timing tasks present a window into aberrant neural circuitry in animal models and in human neuropsychiatric disease (4–6).

The seminal theories of cognitive dysfunction in neuropsychiatric disease indicate a disruption in the fluid and coordinated sequences of thought and action that are the hallmarks of normal cognition (7, 8). Based on consistent abnormalities in structural and functional imaging of schizophrenia, cognitive dysmetrias are thought to occur as a result of abnormalities in a network between the cerebellum and frontal cortex (7, 8). The network connecting the frontal cortex and cerebellum involves an efferent disynaptic projection via corticospinal tracts to the ipsilateral rostral pontine nuclei (9). The afferent cerebellar projection is through the ventrolateral and mediodorsal thalamic nuclei (10–13). Cerebellar stimulation dynamically influences the medial frontal cortex in animals (14–16) and is safe and effective in alleviating cognitive impairments and elevating mood in patients with schizophrenia (17). Therefore, the pathway between the cerebellum and medial frontal cortex could be isolated to investigate cognitive circuitry and the therapeutic potential for cerebellar stimulation in diseases involving compromised cognition.

TIMING TASKS REQUIRE COGNITIVE PROCESSING IN THE CEREBELLUM AND FRONTAL CORTEX

Eyeblink conditioning and interval timing are two tasks requiring temporal processing that can be used in animals and humans to investigate the cerebellar influence on the frontal cortex. Eyeblink conditioning is the canonical paradigm to investigate cerebellar function as timing is impaired following cerebellar inactivation and lesion (18–24). Additionally, eyeblink conditioning is a powerful technique to illuminate cerebellar dysfunction in neuropsychiatric disorders (25–28). Eyeblink conditioning involves the pairing of a neutral conditioned stimulus (CS), such as a light or tone, with an aversive unconditioned stimulus (US), typically an airpuff to the eye or periorbital shock, to elicit an unconditioned response (UR). Following repeated pairings of the CS and US, the subject adaptively predicts the pending US and elicits a preventative conditioned eyeblink response (CR) that precedes the onset of the US. Two types of eyeblink conditioning exist in which there is either no interval between the CS and US and the two stimuli co-terminate (delay conditioning) or an interval of time between the two so that the offset of the CS is several milliseconds or seconds before the onset of the US (trace conditioning). Although studies claim trace and

delay conditioning recruit different brain regions, they both involve activity in the cerebellum and medial frontal cortex (29–31).

This is an important consideration because the cerebellum and medial frontal cortex are both essential for accurate timing and both are aberrant in neuropsychiatric disease (25–27, 30–34). Although eyeblink conditioning involves motor performance, timing the interval also requires working memory, attention to time, and therefore involves cognitive processing. Animals with a disrupted cerebellum (35) and humans with cerebellar damage exhibit spared motor performance while eyeblink conditioning is impaired (36), indicating a separate role of the cerebellum in cognitive and motor function. Additionally, PET imaging studies indicate that both the frontal cortex and cerebellum are involved in eyeblink conditioning (37, 38) and they are hypoactive concurrent with impairments in eyeblink conditioning in patients with schizophrenia (26, 27).

Interval timing closely resembles eyeblink conditioning in that two stimuli are separated by an interval of time, and subjects estimate the passage of the specified interval. Subjects hold temporal information regarding the passage of time in their mind while they estimate when the respective amount of time has elapsed by making a motor response. Interval timing critically depends on the medial frontal cortex, which is impaired in patients with neuropsychologic illness (25–27, 30–34). There are currently no studies in animals reporting a cerebellar involvement in interval timing, likely due to the traditional view of cerebellar contributions to only subsecond temporal processing (2). However, humans with cerebellar damage have profound deficits discriminating longer intervals (8–32 s) in a temporal bisection task (39). Therefore, the cerebellum merits further investigation during interval timing tasks that require timing in the range of seconds. By combining interval timing literature with the work on eyeblink conditioning, we could gain insight into the function of cingulocerebellar circuitry and its dysfunction in cognitive disease.

TIMING TASKS CAN BE USED TO PROBE THE NEURAL MECHANISMS UNDERLYING COGNITIVE PROCESSING

Although different timescales are often used, there are two types of neuronal activity that are consistently described during timing tasks: ramping (consistent increases or decreases in neuronal firing) (40–48) and low-frequency oscillations (42, 43, 49, 50). Single medial frontal cortical neurons that are consistently active or increase or decrease activity to bridge the interval between the CS and US are consistently reported during operant and classical conditioning paradigms, including eyeblink conditioning (9), interval timing (42), and fear conditioning (51). These neurons are often referred to as climbing, bridging, or ramping neurons, but we will refer to them as ramping neurons in this manuscript.

Ramping activity involves the accumulation of temporal information between the stimuli encoding the start of the trial, US or reward availability, and response time. Of these ramping neurons, 15–20% of them encode the passage of time by ramping or accumulating the increase or decrease in action potentials

over a behaviorally relevant timing window (9, 52). Although essential to bridge the CS and US, this activity may indicate when to respond prior to the end of the CS in delay conditioning. A subset of cerebellar neurons shows a similar pattern of bridging or ramping activity to that of frontal neurons during eyeblink conditioning (9, 53, 54). Therefore, it is speculated that consistent activity in the medial frontal cortex provides the cerebellum with timing information for bridging the temporal gap between the CS and US regardless of the presence of an interstimulus interval (9).

Ramping activity that reverberates throughout the circuit could represent timing as a circuit-wide phenomenon rather than structure and task specific. Investigating concurrent medial frontal and cerebellar activity during timing tasks in healthy and aberrant states could elucidate how the brain encodes cognitive processes. Neuronal activity that lapses the interval could represent working memory processes. Therefore, combining the literature from both the eyeblink conditioning and interval timing fields could provide a circuit-based interpretation of how the brain encodes time and incidentally, cognition.

In addition to the role of ramping activity during timing, cue-evoked theta activity is also essential for temporal processing (42). During interval timing, rodents and humans have similar bursts of low-frequency activity immediately following trial start (42, 43) as measured by multi-neuron local field potential (LFP) signals. This burst of cue-evoked activity could represent the start of an internal clock in timing tasks that initiates ramping activity in single neurons to encode the passage of time (50). Low-frequency oscillations also synchronize activity within brain networks as revealed by coherence in theta frequencies between brain areas, presenting a mechanism for how neuronal networks organize behavior across time (55).

Concomitant with ramping patterns, medial frontal theta activity is dependent on dopamine as revealed by diminution of low-frequency oscillations following focal D1 dopamine blockade in the frontal cortex during interval timing (42, 43). PD characteristically involves dopamine dysfunction, and consistent with these results, medial frontal theta activity is attenuated in PD patients (43). We previously described common mid-frontal oscillations triggered by the cue (tone) during interval timing tasks in both humans and rodents (43). Additionally, the prefrontal cortex and cerebellar nuclei are coupled at low frequencies (56, 57). Synchronization between ramping neurons in both the cerebellum and frontal cortex during cognitive processing indicates that rather than one area encoding time, low-frequency activity throughout a circuit may be essential, implicating a highly conserved neural architecture for temporal organization of behavior in mammals.

CEREBELLAR STIMULATION DURING TIMING TASKS CAN BE USED TO RESCUE NEURAL MECHANISMS UNDERLYING COGNITION

If cerebellar and frontal areas both encode cognitive processes, cerebellar stimulation could be used to recover aberrant neuronal activity and rescue cognitive abnormalities in disease. Cerebellar

vernal transcranial magnetic stimulation (TMS) produced downstream changes in neuronal activity in the frontal cortex as revealed by electroencephalogram (EEG) (58). A classic study by Cooper et al. electrically stimulated the cerebellum in patients with epilepsy and reported improved cognition based on increased alertness, improvement in thinking, and fluency of speech in addition to many enriched emotional characteristics (59). Recently, cerebellar theta-burst (TMS) was reported to be safe and effective in alleviating some cognitive impairments and elevating mood in treatment-resistant schizophrenia patients (17). There are currently several clinical trials further investigating the therapeutic potential of the cerebellum in schizophrenia, yet the underlying neuronal mechanisms remain unknown – Clinicaltrials.gov (60). These studies indicate that there is great potential for cerebellar stimulation to be used to treat cognitive symptoms of neuropsychiatric disease pending the explicit mapping and understanding of the influence of the cerebellum on frontal circuits.

Cerebellar dentate electrical stimulation has been shown to influence the dopamine efflux in the frontal cortex (14–16, 61). Conversely, electrical stimulation of the prefrontal cortex elicited neuronal firing in cerebellar lobule VII (61) establishing a physiologic mechanism for communication between the two areas. However, to our knowledge, cerebellar stimulation has never been explored in behaving animals. We recently described a novel method to use cerebellar optogenetic stimulation to rescue cognitive deficits induced by pharmacological frontal inactivation in behaving animals. In addition to providing critical information regarding aberrant neural circuitry in disease, cerebellar stimulation can be used to recover dysfunctional neurons and rescue timing impairments in eyeblink conditioning and interval timing tasks.

CLINICAL IMPLICATIONS

We have hypothesized that cognitive processing during timing tasks relies on low-frequency, cue-evoked activity in the medial frontal cortex to signal the start of single neuron ramping. Ramping activity could represent an internal clock encoding the passage of time and indicating when to make a motor response (41, 42). By combining frontal EEG with cerebellar TMS, we can investigate how cerebellar stimulation influences neuronal activity in the frontal cortex. We hypothesize that low-frequency cerebellar stimulation will reinstate both low-frequency oscillations and ramping properties of medial frontal neurons in patients with neuropsychiatric illness.

Electroencephalogram activity indicates the sum of a large population of neurons over a relatively poor spatially represented area. This technique will allow us to investigate neuronal oscillations in humans, but only rodent models can be used to investigate how stimulation influences ramping activity. We recently explored temporal processing in PD (43). PD involves the death of dopaminergic neurons in the substantia nigra, pars compacta and in the ventral tegmental area that projects to the frontal cortex (62). We hypothesized that dysfunctional frontal dopamine would lead to diminished frontal theta and result in impaired interval timing performance. We recorded EEG from patients with PD and healthy controls while they performed

interval timing tasks, and to explore ramping activity, we used an animal model of frontal dopamine depletion with 6-OHDA in the medial frontal cortex. Interestingly, patients with PD and animal models of PD have diminished oscillations during interval timing tasks and ramping activity is diminished concurrent with dysfunctional temporal processing (43). These data indicate specific dopamine-dependent activity in the medial frontal cortex is necessary for interval timing and therefore, cognitive processing.

We hypothesize that cognitive abnormalities are similar between many neuropsychiatric diseases including PD, schizophrenia, and autism. In schizophrenia, the prefrontal cortex shows abnormal D1 dopamine (63–65), and patients inaccurately estimate time (66, 67). Cerebellar TMS has been shown to decrease negative symptoms including cognitive processing in patients with schizophrenia (17). However, if cerebellar stimulation is to become a useful treatment strategy targeted at currently untreatable cognitive impairments in schizophrenia, the precise neuronal effects of cerebellar stimulation need to be illuminated. Reinhart et al. recently reported that patients with schizophrenia have impaired frontal theta activity and cerebellar stimulation appears to rescue this activity (55, 68). The therapeutic potential of cerebellar stimulation during timing tasks has never been studied. Thus, combined TMS and EEG neural recordings in patients with PD, schizophrenia, autism can be used to investigate the neural mechanisms underlying cognitive processing during timing tasks. Cerebellar stimulation is currently in clinical trials to be used to treat the recurrent cognitive symptoms of schizophrenia. Therefore, we expect that insights from this research will guide future therapies for devastating neuropsychiatric diseases. Performance on timing tasks and frontal dysfunction may be a useful clinical biomarker of frontal dysfunction in neuropsychiatric illness.

REFERENCES

- Ivry RB, Spencer RM. The neural representation of time. *Curr Opin Neurobiol* (2004) 14:225–32. doi:10.1016/j.conb.2004.03.013
- Buhusi CV, Meck WH. What makes us tick? Functional and neural mechanisms of interval timing. *Nat Rev Neurosci* (2005) 6:755–65. doi:10.1038/nrn1764
- Eack SM, Bahorik AL, McKnight SAF, Hogarty SS, Greenwald DP, Newhill CE, et al. Commonalities in social and non-social cognitive impairments in adults with autism spectrum disorder and schizophrenia. *Schizophr Res* (2013) 148:24–8. doi:10.1016/j.schres.2013.05.013
- Parker KL, Lamichhane D, Caetano MS, Narayanan NS. Executive dysfunction in Parkinson's disease and timing deficits. *Front Integr Neurosci* (2013) 7:75. doi:10.3389/fnint.2013.00075
- Ivry RB, Keele SW, Diener HC. Dissociation of the lateral and medial cerebellum in movement timing and movement execution. *Exp Brain Res* (1988) 73:167–80. doi:10.1007/BF00279670
- Ward RD, Kellendonk C, Kandel ER, Balsam PD. Timing as a window on cognition in schizophrenia. *Neuropharmacology* (2011) 62:1175–81. doi:10.1016/j.neuropharm.2011.04.014
- Andreasen NC, Paradiso S, O'Leary DS. "Cognitive dysmetria" as an integrative theory of schizophrenia. *Schizophr Bull* (1998) 24:203–18. doi:10.1093/oxfordjournals.schbul.a033321
- Schmahmann JD. Dysmetria of thought: clinical consequences of cerebellar dysfunction on cognition and affect. *Trends Cogn Sci (Regul Ed)* (1998) 2:362–71. doi:10.1016/S1364-6613(98)01218-2
- Siegel JJ, Kalmbach B, Chitwood RA, Mauk MD. Persistent activity in a cortical-to-subcortical circuit: bridging the temporal gap in trace eyelid conditioning. *J Neurophysiol* (2012) 107:50–64. doi:10.1152/jn.00689.2011

CONCLUSION

Eyeblink conditioning and interval timing are powerful techniques that can be used in both human and animals to probe cognitive processing in cerebellar and frontal cortical circuitry. Timing tasks can provide us with a behavioral outcome to evaluate the efficacy of cerebellar stimulation on the frontal cortex neuronal activity and cognitive processing neuropsychiatric diseases including schizophrenia, bipolar disorder, ADHD, autism, OCD, and PD. As EEG is widely available, inexpensive, and easily executed, the detection of diminished frontal theta has the potential to be used as a biomarker of neuropsychiatric cognitive and neuronal dysfunction (28). TMS is rapidly becoming an important research tool in neuropsychiatric illness (60), so identifying a specific type of activity that encodes timing and cognition could guide individualized stimulation according to abnormalities in real time. Specifically, a closed-loop design where cerebellar stimulation is based on real time, aberrant frontal activity as defined by a temporal prediction error, could inspire a new paradigm to adaptively stimulate cerebellar neurons using TMS with temporal specificity to reinstate accurate timing and cognitive processes (69).

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

KP takes full authorship of this manuscript.

FUNDING

This work was funded by K01MH106824, NARSAD Young Investigator Award as part of the Lieber Investigators, and Nellie Ball Trust Research Awards.

- Parker KL, Narayanan NS, Andreasen NC. The therapeutic potential of the cerebellum in schizophrenia. *Front Syst Neurosci* (2014) 8:163. doi:10.3389/fnsys.2014.00163
- Strick PL, Dum RP, Fiez JA. Cerebellum and nonmotor function. *Annu Rev Neurosci* (2009) 32:413–34. doi:10.1146/annurev.neuro.31.060407.125606
- Bostan AC, Dum RP, Strick PL. Cerebellar networks with the cerebral cortex and basal ganglia. *Trends Cogn Sci* (2013) 17:241–54. doi:10.1016/j.tics.2013.03.003
- Shinoda Y, Futami T, Kano M. Synaptic organization of the cerebello-thalamo-cerebral pathway in the cat. II. Input-output organization of single thalamocortical neurons in the ventrolateral thalamus. *Neurosci Res* (1985) 2:157–80. doi:10.1016/0168-0102(85)90010-0
- Mittleman G, Goldowitz D, Heck DH, Blaha CD. Cerebellar modulation of frontal cortex dopamine efflux in mice: relevance to autism and schizophrenia. *Synapse* (2008) 62:544–50. doi:10.1002/syn.20525
- Rogers TD, Dickson PE, Heck DH, Goldowitz D, Mittleman G, Blaha CD. Connecting the dots of the cerebro-cerebellar role in cognitive function: neuronal pathways for cerebellar modulation of dopamine release in the prefrontal cortex. *Synapse* (2011) 65:1204–12. doi:10.1002/syn.20960
- Rogers TD, Dickson PE, McKimm E, Heck DH, Goldowitz D, Blaha CD, et al. Reorganization of circuits underlying cerebellar modulation of prefrontal cortical dopamine in mouse models of autism spectrum disorder. *Cerebellum* (2013) 12:547–56. doi:10.1007/s12311-013-0462-2
- Demirtas-Tatlidede A, Freitas C, Cromer JR, Safar L, Ongur D, Stone WS, et al. Safety and proof of principle study of cerebellar vermal theta burst stimulation in refractory schizophrenia. *Schizophr Res* (2010) 124:91–100. doi:10.1016/j.schres.2010.08.015

18. Bracha V. Role of the cerebellum in eyeblink conditioning. *Prog Brain Res* (2004) **143**:331–9. doi:10.1016/S0079-6123(03)43032-X
19. Christian KM, Thompson RF. Neural substrates of eyeblink conditioning: acquisition and retention. *Learn Mem* (2003) **10**:427–55. doi:10.1101/lm.59603
20. McCormick DA, Clark GA, Lavond DG, Thompson RF. Initial localization of the memory trace for a basic form of learning. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* (1982) **79**:2731–5. doi:10.1073/pnas.79.8.2731
21. McCormick DA, Thompson RF. Neuronal responses of the rabbit cerebellum during acquisition and performance of a classically conditioned nictitating membrane-eyelid response. *J Neurosci* (1984) **4**:2811–22.
22. Yeo CH, Hardiman MJ, Glickstein M. Classical conditioning of the nictitating membrane response of the rabbit. I. Lesions of the cerebellar nuclei. *Exp Brain Res* (1985) **60**:87–98. doi:10.1007/BF00237022
23. Parker K. The role of cerebellar nuclear GABAergic neurotransmission in eyeblink motor control. *Graduate Theses and Dissertations*. (2009). Available from: <http://lib.dr.iastate.edu/etd/10509>
24. Garcia KS, Mauk MD. Pharmacological analysis of cerebellar contributions to the timing and expression of conditioned eyelid responses. *Neuropharmacology* (1998) **37**:471–80. doi:10.1016/S0028-3908(98)00055-0
25. Brown SM, Kieffaber PD, Carroll CA, Vohs JL, Tracy JA, Shekhar A, et al. Eyeblink conditioning deficits indicate timing and cerebellar abnormalities in schizophrenia. *Brain Cogn* (2005) **58**:94–108. doi:10.1016/j.bandc.2004.09.011
26. Forsyth JK, Bolbecker AR, Mehta CS, Klaunig MJ, Steinmetz JE, O'Donnell BF, et al. Cerebellar-dependent eyeblink conditioning deficits in schizophrenia spectrum disorders. *Schizophr Bull* (2012) **38**:751–9. doi:10.1093/schbul/sbq148
27. Parker KL, Andreasen NC, Liu D, Freeman JH, O'Leary DS. Eyeblink conditioning in unmedicated schizophrenia patients: a positron emission tomography study. *Psychiatry Res* (2013) **214**:402–29. doi:10.1016/j.psychres.2013.07.006
28. Reeb-Sutherland BC, Fox NA. Eyeblink conditioning: a non-invasive biomarker for neurodevelopmental disorders. *J Autism Dev Disord* (2013) **45**:376–94. doi:10.1007/s10803-013-1905-9
29. Wu G, Yao J, Zhang L, Li X, Fan Z, Yang Y, et al. Reevaluating the role of the medial prefrontal cortex in delay eyeblink conditioning. *Neurobiol Learn Mem* (2012) **97**:277–88. doi:10.1016/j.nlm.2012.02.001
30. Kronforst-Collins MA, Disterhoft JF. Lesions of the caudal area of rabbit medial prefrontal cortex impair trace eyeblink conditioning. *Neurobiol Learn Mem* (1998) **69**:147–62. doi:10.1006/nlme.1997.3818
31. Weible AP, McEchron MD, Disterhoft JF. Cortical involvement in acquisition and extinction of trace eyeblink conditioning. *Behav Neurosci* (2000) **114**:1058–67. doi:10.1037/0735-7044.114.6.1058
32. Woodruff-Pak DS, Lavond DG, Thompson RF. Trace conditioning: abolished by cerebellar nuclear lesions but not lateral cerebellar cortex aspirations. *Brain Res* (1985) **348**:249–60. doi:10.1016/0006-8993(85)90443-3
33. Takehara K, Kawahara S, Kirino Y. Time-dependent reorganization of the brain components underlying memory retention in trace eyeblink conditioning. *J Neurosci* (2003) **23**:9897–905.
34. Bolbecker AR, Mehta CS, Edwards CR, Steinmetz JE, O'Donnell BF, Hetrick WP. Eye-blink conditioning deficits indicate temporal processing abnormalities in schizophrenia. *Schizophr Res* (2009) **111**:182–91. doi:10.1016/j.schres.2009.03.016
35. Woodruff-Pak DS, Disterhoft JF. Where is the trace in trace conditioning? *Trends Neurosci* (2008) **31**:105–12. doi:10.1016/j.tins.2007.11.006
36. Gerwig M, Kolb FP, Timmann D. The involvement of the human cerebellum in eyeblink conditioning. *Cerebellum* (2007) **6**:38–57. doi:10.1080/14734220701225904
37. Blaxton TA, Zeffiro TA, Gabrieli JD, Bookheimer SY, Carrillo MC, Theodore WH, et al. Functional mapping of human learning: a positron emission tomography activation study of eyeblink conditioning. *J Neurosci* (1996) **16**:4032–40.
38. Parker KL, Andreasen NC, Liu D, Freeman JH, Ponto LLB, O'Leary DS. Eyeblink conditioning in healthy adults: a positron emission tomography study. *Cerebellum* (2012) **11**:946–56. doi:10.1007/s12311-012-0377-3
39. Nichelli P, Alway D, Grafman J. Perceptual timing in cerebellar degeneration. *Neuropsychologia* (1996) **34**:863–71. doi:10.1016/0028-3932(96)00001-2
40. Durstewitz D. Self-organizing neural integrator predicts interval times through climbing activity. *J Neurosci* (2003) **23**:5342–53.
41. Reutimann J, Yakovlev V, Fusi S, Senn W. Climbing neuronal activity as an event-based cortical representation of time. *J Neurosci* (2004) **24**:3295–303. doi:10.1523/JNEUROSCI.4098-03.2004
42. Parker KL, Chen K-H, Kingyon JR, Cavanagh JF, Narayanan NS. D1-dependent 4 Hz oscillations and ramping activity in rodent medial frontal cortex during interval timing. *J Neurosci* (2014) **34**:16774–83. doi:10.1523/JNEUROSCI.2772-14.2014
43. Parker KL, Chen K-H, Kingyon JR, Cavanagh JF, Narayanan NS. Medial frontal ~4 Hz activity in humans and rodents is attenuated in PD patients and in rodents with cortical dopamine depletion. *J Neurophysiol* (2015) **114**:1310–20. doi:10.1152/jn.00412.2015
44. Narayanan NS, Laubach M. Delay activity in rodent frontal cortex during a simple reaction time task. *J Neurophysiol* (2009) **101**:2859–71. doi:10.1152/jn.90615.2008
45. Kim J, Ghim J-W, Lee JH, Jung MW. Neural correlates of interval timing in rodent prefrontal cortex. *J Neurosci* (2013) **33**:13834–47. doi:10.1523/JNEUROSCI.1443-13.2013
46. Wong KF, Wang XJ. A recurrent network mechanism of time integration in perceptual decisions. *J Neurosci* (2006) **26**:1314–28. doi:10.1523/JNEUROSCI.3733-05.2006
47. Xu M, Zhang S, Dan Y, Poo M. Representation of interval timing by temporally scalable firing patterns in rat prefrontal cortex. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* (2014) **111**:480–5. doi:10.1073/pnas.1321314111
48. Donnelly NA, Paulsen O, Robbins TW, Dalley JW. Ramping single unit activity in the medial prefrontal cortex and ventral striatum reflects the onset of waiting but not imminent impulsive actions. *Eur J Neurosci* (2015) **41**:1524–37. doi:10.1111/ejn.12895
49. Narayanan NS, Cavanagh JF, Frank MJ, Laubach M. Common medial frontal mechanisms of adaptive control in humans and rodents. *Nat Neurosci* (2013) **16**:1888–97. doi:10.1038/nn.3549
50. Kononowicz TW. Dopamine-dependent oscillations in frontal cortex index “start-gun” signal in interval timing. *Front Hum Neurosci* (2015) **9**:331. doi:10.3389/fnhum.2015.00331
51. Gilmartin MR, Miyawaki H, Helmstetter FJ, Diba K. Prefrontal activity links nonoverlapping events in memory. *J Neurosci* (2013) **33**:10910–4. doi:10.1523/JNEUROSCI.0144-13.2013
52. Chen H, Yang L, Xu Y, Wu G, Yao J, Zhang J, et al. Prefrontal control of cerebellum-dependent associative motor learning. *Cerebellum* (2014) **13**:64–78. doi:10.1007/s12311-013-0517-4
53. Campolattaro MM, Kashef A, Lee I, Freeman JH. Neuronal correlates of cross-modal transfer in the cerebellum and pontine nuclei. *J Neurosci* (2011) **31**:4051–62. doi:10.1523/JNEUROSCI.4142-10.2011
54. Aksenov D, Serdyukova N, Irwin K, Bracha V. GABA neurotransmission in the cerebellar interposed nuclei: involvement in classically conditioned eyeblinks and neuronal activity. *J Neurophysiol* (2004) **91**:719–27. doi:10.1152/jn.00859.2003
55. Reinhart RMG, Zhu J, Park S, Woodman GF. Synchronizing theta oscillations with direct-current stimulation strengthens adaptive control in the human brain. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* (2015) **112**:9448–53. doi:10.1073/pnas.1504196112
56. Dugué GP, Brunel N, Hakim V, Schwartz E, Chat M, Lévesque M, et al. Electrical coupling mediates tunable low-frequency oscillations and resonance in the cerebellar Golgi cell network. *Neuron* (2009) **61**:126–39. doi:10.1016/j.neuron.2008.11.028
57. Watson TC, Becker N, Apps R, Jones MW. Back to front: cerebellar connections and interactions with the prefrontal cortex. *Front Syst Neurosci* (2014) **8**:4. doi:10.3389/fnsys.2014.00004
58. Schutter DJLG, van Honk J, d'Alfonso AAL, Peper JS, Panksepp J. High frequency repetitive transcranial magnetic over the medial cerebellum induces a shift in the prefrontal electroencephalography gamma spectrum: a pilot study in humans. *Neurosci Lett* (2003) **336**:73–6. doi:10.1016/S0304-3940(02)01077-7
59. Cooper IS, Amin I, Riklan M, Waltz JM, Poon TP. Chronic cerebellar stimulation in epilepsy. Clinical and anatomical studies. *Arch Neurol* (1976) **33**:559–70. doi:10.1001/archneur.1976.00500080037006

60. Grimaldi G, Argyropoulos GP, Boehringer A, Celnik P, Edwards MJ, Ferrucci R, et al. Non-invasive cerebellar stimulation – a consensus paper. *Cerebellum* (2014) **13**:121–38. doi:10.1007/s12311-013-0514-7
61. Watson TC, Jones MW, Apps R. Electrophysiological mapping of novel prefrontal – cerebellar pathways. *Front Integr Neurosci* (2009) **3**:18. doi:10.3389/neuro.07.018.2009
62. Alberico SL, Cassell MD, Narayanan NS. The vulnerable ventral tegmental area in Parkinson's disease. *Basal Ganglia* (2015) **5**:51–5. doi:10.1016/j.baga.2015.06.001
63. Weinberger DR, Berman KF, Zec RF. Physiologic dysfunction of dorsolateral prefrontal cortex in schizophrenia: I. Regional cerebral blood flow evidence. *Arch Gen Psychiatry* (1986) **43**:114–24. doi:10.1001/archpsyc.1986.01800020020004
64. Okubo Y, Suhara T, Suzuki K, Kobayashi K, Inoue O, Terasaki O, et al. Decreased prefrontal dopamine D1 receptors in schizophrenia revealed by PET. *Nature* (1997) **385**:634–6. doi:10.1038/385634a0
65. Goldman-Rakic PS, Castner SA, Svensson TH, Siever LJ, Williams GV. Targeting the dopamine D1 receptor in schizophrenia: insights for cognitive dysfunction. *Psychopharmacology (Berl)* (2004) **174**:3–16. doi:10.1007/s00213-004-1793-y
66. Elvevåg B, McCormack T, Gilbert A, Brown GDA, Weinberger DR, Goldberg TE. Duration judgements in patients with schizophrenia. *Psychol Med* (2003) **33**:1249–61. doi:10.1017/S0033291703008122
67. Bonnot O, de Montalembert M, Kermarrec S, Botbol M, Walter M, Coulon N. Are impairments of time perception in schizophrenia a neglected phenomenon? *J Physiol Paris* (2011) **105**:164–9. doi:10.1016/j.jphysparis.2011.07.006
68. Schutter DJLG, van Honk J. An electrophysiological link between the cerebellum, cognition and emotion: frontal theta EEG activity to single-pulse cerebellar TMS. *Neuroimage* (2006) **33**:1227–31. doi:10.1016/j.neuroimage.2006.06.055
69. Grosenick L, Marshel JH, Deisseroth K. Closed-loop and activity-guided optogenetic control. *Neuron* (2015) **86**:106–39. doi:10.1016/j.neuron.2015.03.034

Conflict of Interest Statement: The author declares that the research was conducted in the absence of any commercial or financial relationships that could be construed as a potential conflict of interest.

Copyright © 2016 Parker. This is an open-access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License (CC BY). The use, distribution or reproduction in other forums is permitted, provided the original author(s) or licensor are credited and that the original publication in this journal is cited, in accordance with accepted academic practice. No use, distribution or reproduction is permitted which does not comply with these terms.